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THE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Faculty of Education
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Editorial

This Journal is devoted to publishing the findings of Educational research. There are ,however, two or three fields that have been relatively neglected, probably because of the difficulty of doing research in them. These fields are speculative and philosophical in nature and do not lend themselves readily to statistical or quantitative treatment. They are of major concern nonetheless.

One is the problem of value: What are the predominant values subscribed to in our society? Have they changed in the past, say, 50 years? Are they in the process of change today? How do pupils "learn" the values by which they will live today and tomorrow? Are there better means of establishing a proper set of values than those we now employ, whether consciously or unconsciously?

Another field of research lies in the outcomes of some of our less objective aims of education: What are the "fruits" of our Personal Development course? To what extent do our pupils achieve a sense of international mindedness? of racial tolerance? of a common kinship to peoples of different religious and moral standards? To what degree do students develop a critical mindedness? What are the real reasons for pupils dropping out of school in contrast with professed reasons? What proportion and types of parents are genuinely interested in the schooling of their children? Here we are in the fields of economics and sociology.

Reverting for a few minutes to the study of values: Dr. J. W. Getzels of the University of Chicago has made a contribution by summarizing the findings of predecessors in this field and by launching some fresh studies of his own. Quoting from Professor Kasper Naegele, Getzels names America's "sacred values" as democracy, individualism, equality, and human perfectability, values which are held in special veneration on Sundays and State occasions. The every day or secular values are listed as the work-success ethic, future-time orientation, dependence on the autonomous self, and Puritan morality.

There are, says Getzels, strong, in fact statistically significant, evidences that our secular values are changing. For example, the work-success ethic is emerging into the sociability ethic. Two hundred seniors in twenty colleges were asked to describe their personal aspirations and life goals. Fortune magazine published the findings under the revealing title "None of this Ulcer Stuff" (LIV, October, 1956, 155). To quote Getzels: "Typically the seniors talked more about social and personal gratification than about career

achievement. They explicity reject the 'push' of their fathers, and aspire to Suburbia as their goal. As one senior said, 'Dad was a lone wolf, and I wouldn't have the brass', and another adds, 'I'm not really interested in one of those big executive jobs. None of this ulcer and breakdown stuff for me' ".

Moving from future-time orientation to present-time orientation, the slogan "A penny saved is a penny earned" is rapidly giving way to the more comfortable slogan "no down payment necessary".

Finally, à propos of Puritan morality, in 1923 the Pressey X-O test was administered to 955 undergraduates at Ohio University. This test contains 125 items such as immodesty, extravagence, flirting, etc., and the respondent is required to indicate the items he believes to be objectionable or wrong.

In 1953 (thirty years later) the same test was administered to 842 students at the same institution and to 408 adults, many over 50 years of age. The results point unequivocally to a marked similarity between the 1923 students and the adults over fifty in 1953 on questions of "morality", and a marked difference of both from the students of 1953. One comparison will suffice: the term 'immodesty' was held to be wrong by 70% of the 1912 students, by 86% of the 1953 elders, and by only 40% of the 1953 children.

Problems of value and value shifts should engage the attention of educators and sociologists.

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND: A SUMMARY ACCOUNT

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A full understanding of the educational institutions of any country is, of course, dependent upon a knowledge of their development. This is especially true of English schools, the shape of which has been intimately fashioned by political and social, and indeed by economic and religious history. For the understanding of current institutions of secondary education, however, an adequate basis may be had from a knowledge of twentieth century developments and in particular of three major reports preceding the Education Act of 1944.

The Hadow Report, 1926, showed a fundamental concern for what is called "the regrading of education" (6), proposing a clear break between primary and post-primary education at the age of eleven.

> This (second) stage which, for many pupils would end at 16+, for some at 18 or 19, but for the majority at 14+ or 15+, should be envisaged so far as possible as a single whole, within which there will be a variety in the type of education supplied, but which will be marked by the common characteristic that its aim is to provide for the needs of children who are entering and passing through the stage of adolescence. (6, p. 71).

The new stage should, according to the Report, be differentiated for different kinds of student and should follow through in separate institutions. "Progress must take place . . . along several different paths" (6, p. 52). *Grammar* schools were to offer "a predominately literary or scientific curriculum" for at least five years of the student's life. *Modern* schools were to offer a minimum program of four years, with a " 'realistic' or practical trend in the last two years." Those who did not go to the foregoing types of school were to be accommodated in "senior classes" of public elementary schools. Provision was to be made for transfer between Modern and Grammar schools (and also to Junior Technical schools) at the age of 12 or 13 (6, pp. 93-95).

The Spens Report of 1938, after urging the adoption of the Hadow Report, proposed in addition to Grammar and Modern schools a third "form of secondary education which ought to be regarded as an alternative to that of a Grammar School" (7). This was to go forward in Technical High schools, "in every respect equal in status to Grammar Schools." In the context of this proposal the

Committee made two things quite clear. First, it saw the Technical High school as a development of already existing Junior Technical schools based on engineering and building industries, but not of more narrowly vocational or trade schools (which ought not in any event, according to the Committee, to recruit before the age of 13 or 14). Second, the committee registered a strong objection to multilateral schools[1] (7, XIX, note 1), though not to what is termed the multilateral idea[2] (7, p. 292).

The Norwood Committee, 1943, accepted the tripartite scheme much as proposed in the Spens Report: "At the age of 11+, or earlier in some cases, a child would pass into one of the three types of secondary education which we have postulated, secondary Grammar School, secondary Technical School, secondary Modern School" (5, p. 15). "Each of these is assumed to correspond with "a particular type of mind" (5, p. 4). Thus, for example, "the mind suited by a Grammar School curriculum is interested in learning for its own sake" (5, p. 6). The report is, however, steadily sensitive to the dangers of trying to "type" children at an early age. For this reason it recommends a review of the achievement of all pupils after two years of secondary schooling. For the same reason, presumably, it is somewhat less antagonistic to "two-type" or "three-type" (the so-called *Multilateral*) schools than was the Spens Report.

Obviously the above reports were in general agreement upon a number of important points: a clear (administrative) break between primary and post-primary education, selection at 11+, differential secondary schools, equal status for such schools. It remained for the 1944 Act to clear the way.

> It shall be the duty of every local education authority to secure that there shall be availabale for their area sufficient schools . . . to afford for all pupils opportunities for education offering such variety of instruction and training as may be desirable in view of their different ages, abilities, and aptitudes . . . (10, pp. 4-5, Sec. 8:1).

Secondary Schools Today

These, in the terminology of the Reports, are mainly Grammar, Technical, and Modern schools. Many of them are evolving, however, in ways not anticipated in the Reports (especially the earlier two). Furthermore there are increasing numbers of bilateral, multilateral, or *comprehensive* schools. There are, in addition,

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[1] The Report describes as 'multilateral' a school which, "by means of separate 'streams', would provide for all types of secondary education, with the exception of that provided by Junior Technical Schools in so far as these depend on their association with a Technical College and the equipment there available."

[2] "The multilateral idea, though it may not be expressed by means of the multilateral school, should permeate the system of secondary education . . ." See also pp. xxxv-xxxvi.

various kinds of independent schools which, curriculum-wise, resemble the grammar school.

Grammar Schools

The Grammar school continues to hold a high place in general public esteem. The reasons for this esteem are, of course, social as well as educational. Historically, Grammar school standards of behavior were at least as important as Grammar school standards of scholarship; and the institution's value as a means of economic and social advancement was if anything greater than that of its curriculum. So hallowed is its place in the eyes of many that it warrants special protection. "Care should be taken . . . to avoid any action which might undermine their (the Grammar schools') efficiency or expose them to undesirable competition" (6, p. 56). To some champions of the Grammar school, indeed, the new Act seemed unfriendly.

> All these measures (of the Butler Act) were excellent in themselves and were long overdue, nor did they do anything directly or on purpose to detract from the value and status of the Grammar Schools; but they did mean that the Grammar School, as a member of the educational family, was made to feel very much the unwanted child (21, p. 10).

Many educators, however, would regard such a complaint as unduly sensitive. Grammar schools are basic institutions of English secondary education. They have broadened their curriculum to include science and even (in some cases) crafts as well as literary subjects. They enrol twenty out of every hundred of the youth of secondary school age.

Technical Schools

These, by contrast, enrol only some five per cent of their age group. Such a figure suggests that Technical High schools have never attained the parity of status hoped for in the Spens Report: indeed it may be regarded as critically low in the educational economy of a predominantly industrial nation. It must be remembered, however, that the term *technical* is tremendously inclusive, and that technical education goes forward in situations ranging from apprenticeship systems on the one hand to Oxbridge universities on the other (25, Ch. 11). Conversely, to the extent that a main objective of Technical High schools is the continuance of general education, this is being carried out in Grammar and Modern schools also. For the rest, the physical resources available to the new Technical High schools have been desperately meagre. Even moral resources have in many instances been lacking: not only has the general public tended to regard the Technical High schools as inferior to Grammar schools, but leaders in technical education itself fear some loss of close relationships with industry.

It seems safe to predict that, lacking the traditional status of the Grammar school, the Technical High school must develop "from the urgent day-to-day needs of industrical communities . . . and will not grow unless these needs exist."[3]

Modern Schools

The high proportion of attendance at Secondary Modern schools —about sixty per cent by recent count—should imply no proportional vote of confidence in these institutions. Many (perhaps most) of Modern school pupils are where they are because of their failure to win a Grammar or Technical school place in the selection examination, because of an undue shortage of Grammar school places, or because of inability to pay the fee of an independent school.

Probably the Modern school's greatest liability has been its lack, not merely of a tradition, but of a viable purpose understandable and understood by parents and even by educators. It lends itself to (mis) interpretation as "phoney." It was all very well for the Hadow Report to speak of a "realistic" or "practical" bias—but just what did this mean in terms of program? And did it apply to all students—ranging from those who just failed to secure Grammar school places to those bordering on the educationally subnormal?

There is in evidence, however, a recent surge of optimism on the part at least of those who work in and write about Modern schools (11, Pt. 2). The undeveloped potential of all students (especially late developers) is pointed up. There is a sense of mission and achievement in the work with remedial groups, and equally in that with the more able students. Indeed many Modern schools report substantial success with Grammar school streams and with the General Certificate Examinations at Ordinary and even at Advanced levels.

For such bilateral (and even, in some cases, multilatral) schools there would seem to be a continuing place in English education.

Comprehensive Schools

These are defined by the London County Council quite simply as "secondary schools which bring under one roof the work now done in schools of four different kinds: 'grammar', 'technical', 'central', and 'modern' schools"[4] (12).

> The term "comprehensive" was chosen in preference to "multilateral" in order to emphasize the Council's intention that the schools should be organized as unified wholes, and not in clearly defined sides corresponding to grammar, technical and modern schools (14).

[3]George Baron, "Schools and Institutions," lecture London Institute of Education, 1957.

[4]The Central school was a forerunner of the Modern school—providing a general course, with some selection and bias, from age 11 to 15.

It was obvious from the start that schools of this size and character would arouse educational and social controversy. They have become a political issue as well.[5]

In the educational arena schools should, of course, be judged on educational grounds alone. In many respects the lines are clearly drawn. There is, for example, the argument about size: it is alleged, on the one hand, that Comprehensive schools are necessarily so large that they are impersonal; on the other, that intimate personal relationships are obtainable through a variety of tutor and house groupings with the additional advantage of broad school loyalties. And there is the argument about standards: academic students are said on the one hand to lose the stimulus and expertness of an academically minded school, and on the other to retain these advantages in their own stream and in addition to gain by rounded life and study in the broader community.[6]

To date, some two per cent of English secondary school pupils are enrolled in Comprehensive schools. In several areas, however, the number is increasing rapidly. London in 1957 had twenty-six, and Conventry eight: in both cities the Comprehensive school is being planned as the norm of secondary education.

Independent Schools

These are fee-charging schools of two main classes. *Public* schools are "name" schools, controlled by a public trust and controlled by acts of parliament. *Private* schools are private in the sense of financial enterprise by a person or persons, often the headmaster.

Independent schools enrol some seven per cent of pupils of secondary school age. That they rank high in public esteem (if not inevitably in scholarship) is attested by the fact that their places are booked for years ahead—though one factor in their prosperity since 1944 is undoubtedly the passing of the fee prerogative in the Grammar schools. A recent suggestion (27) that half the places in the better Public schools should be grant-aided has attracted attention.

Curriculum and Teaching

In matters of instruction the Head is the arbiter. There is no "state" curriculum. In theory at least the choice of subjects and even the details of the syllabi are the prerogative of the headmaster. The same is presumably true of instructional method, though it

[5]The Labour party officially sponsors Comprehensive schools.

[6]For attack and defence in detail it is interesting to compare, for example, the Spens Report (pp. 18-19) or Rée's **Essential Grammar School** (pp. 18ff.) with any one of the writers on the Comprehensive schools in Simon's **New Trends in English Education** (especially G. A. Winterton, "New Beginnings at Reading", pp. 132ff.).

would be difficult to exercise a great deal of control over so intimate a matter as the teaching process.

In practice, of course, there are powerful directive forces: instructional traditions, inspection, textbooks, examinations, social pressures, the views and convictions of deputies and department heads and teachers as well as those of school boards and (in theory at least) of governors and managers.

Indeed there is sufficient uniformity to permit of the curriculum's being "described." The following description is in terms of years of schooling[7] rather than of types of school—the former organization being at least as significant as the latter in the actual working out of the program.

The First Two Years

Common features of the program are as follows (the range of periods per week being indicated in brackets): scripture (1-3), English (5-7½), history and/or geography (4-6), P.T. and games (4-5). In addition, there is work in science (2-6) and mathematics (5-7), in art (2) and music (2-2), and in wood, metal, or other craft (2-9).

It will be seen that the first two years are relevant to general education, whatever the personality of the student or the type of school which he attends. There are, of course, some differences between the early curriculum of Grammar, Technical, and Modern schools. Grammar students usually begin two foreign languages, and are likely to study the sciences specifically (physics, chemistry, biology—for example—instead of general science). Technical students normally study one foreign language. Modern students may substitute, for wood and metal, light or other useful crafts (housecrafts, practical drawing, gardening, needlewook, fabric printing, modelling, etc.).

A further difference lies in standards of achievement. Most Grammar schools have in mind at least the Ordinary level[8] of the G.C.E. for most of their students, and are likely to insist on a beginning commensurate with this expectation. Technical schools, though less likely to be thinking in terms purely of the G.C.E., must anticipate formal testing programs. Modern schools alone are under no clear obligation of external tests, and thus are free to develop program (both group and individual) suited to age, ability, and aptitude. Increasingly, however, Modern schools are developing G.C.E. streams in the latter years, and hence must anticipate examination requirements in the first two years.

[7]The compulsory school-leaving age was raised from fourteen to fifteen years in 1947.
[8]See Examinations, p. 197.

The Third to the Fifth Years

While most Grammar schools would consider this period—like the first two years—as a continuation of general education, they do permit some specialization before the Ordinary level of the G.C.E. (21, p. 27). Students primarily interested in science may, for example, study only one foreign language, and those interested in linguistics only one subject in mathematics or science. Normally a student will retain seven or even eight subjects for the five-year period.

For Technical students the main difference between the latter and the first two years is the substitution of the "bias" subject for introductory crafts. This subject may be engineering, or commerce, or more advanced arts and crafts. In the fourth year physics replaces general science for the engineers.[9]

The program for the third year of the Modern school would in many instances look something like this: English (8 periods), mathematics (4), woodwork, metal and housecraft (boys, 4 each) or needlework and English (girls, 2 each), religious knowledge (3), handwork (2), history (2), geography (2), music (2), art (2), phys, ed. and games (2) (11, p. 45). Where there is a G.C.E. course, however, it might be as follows (18, p. 28): (a) English, mathematics, science, and (b) either French or geography, and (c) either woodwork and metalwork or history and art.

Other students who stay for a fourth or fifth year (and many do) may choose from a broad range of technical, agricultural, commercial, domestic, or other special courses.

The Sixth Form

This is a Grammar school or (less characteristically) a Technical school program of two or occasionally of three years. It is a specialized program: classical, modern, or scientific.

> The scientist can usually choose from any three of the following subjects—Physics, Chemistry, Mathematics, Higher Mathematics, Biology; the modern from any three of these—French, German, English, History, Geography (with sometimes Latin and Spanish); the classics continues to plough his traditional furrow with Latin, Greek, and Ancient History (21, p. 34).

Some Persistent Problems

The Organization of Secondary Schooling

Superficially at any rate the title of Lady Simon's book *Three Schools or One?* poses the issue. Few educators, of course, now accept the Norwood idea of three types of mind directly corresponding to three types of school. Yet the comprehensive idea runs

[9]George Barno, unpublished data.

counter to a number of cherished traditions. One of these is that the school, any school, should have a distinctive atmosphere or quality or purpose—single not omnibus. Another is more broadly European than merely British—"that the thinking of the few must always be in advance of that of the many," with all that this implies of an exclusive educational system.

Other arguments for and against the Comprehensive school have already been indicated.[10] Still other are implied in problems of selection, streaming, and transfer.

Three schools or one, then, hardly points up the complexities of the issue. Practically, the rejection of this limited alternative can be seen in the general education aspects of the Technical school, non-academic activities in the Grammar school, G.C.E. and other streams in the Modern school.

> It is becoming increasingly difficult to indentfy "pure" grammar, "pure" modern, or "pure" technical school forms. This does not mean, however, that all secondary schools are approximating the comprehensive school ideal. On the contrary, the pattern emerging is still triform in that it is composed of schools *predominantly* grammar, technical, or modern in character, but incorporting groups approximating in direction and purpose one or both of the other possible "streams" (4, p. 220).

Another writer puts the matter thus:

> The question of whether this country will survive as a great country depends not so much on whether we have comprehensive schools but on just how far every school must become comprehensive so that we may be able to develop 'all of the potential of all of the children for all of the time' (22, p. 97).

No sophistry is intended. Nevertheless the application of the above principle would seem to approve not only the act of "becoming comprehensive" but in fact formally *Comprehensive* schools as well.

Secondary School Selection

It has been estimated that whereas fifty per cent of the parents wish their children to go to the Grammar school, there are places for only twenty per cent.[11] If this figure can on any grounds (philosophical, psychological, or other) be accepted as "about right," obviously selection for secondary education must go forward as a highly competitive enterprise.[12]

The entire concept of early selection is ,however, under powerful attack at the present time. In the first place, many psychologists

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10**Supra**, p. 192.

11The Minister of Education List No. 69 (1956) shows a low of 8.7 per cent, and a high of 38.4 (the figures for Wales run much higher—from as low of 26 per cent to a high of 63.) The availability of the Grammar school therefore depends to a considerable degree upon accidents of geography, physical facilities, and the educational philosophy of the individual authorities.

12The customary basis of selection is the combined results of an English test, a mathematics test, and an intelligence test. For further description of this and a variety of techniques and viewpoints see Flann Campbell, **Eleven Plus and All That**, and P. E. Vernon (ed.), **Secondary School Selection.**

maintain that "completely accurate classification of children, either by level or type of ability, is not possible at 11 years (26, p. 169). In the second a recrudescence of the nature-nurture controversy and a wealth of evidence accumulated under both practical and research situations more than ever suggests that the I.Q. so-called itself is in no small degree a function of educational opportunity.[18] Indeed it could well be argued that the true educational solution would be to devote as much money, time, and ingenuity to the enlargement of educational opportunity as to the limitation of it.

Streaming and Transfer

Increasing convictions of the untenability of selection at 11+ lead in turn to increasing doubts about the desirability of rigid streaming. In the general economy of teaching few would, of course, question the importance of broad grouping for large ability differences or of some "cross-setting" for specific subject matters (English, mathematics, the arts, etc.). But many do now protest exclusive segregation whether within schools or between schools.

The need for transfer between streams or between schools is admitted. Yet the difficulties and dangers of inter-school transfer are obvious. Even within the Comprehensive school itself this sort of thing is difficult enough—especially when administrative convenience requires that the size of the forms be "kept even."

> There are many ways of damaging a child; one of the worst, I think, is to imprison him in a definition. He is a secondary modern school child; he is capable of this or that limited amount of mental effort; this or that term must be placed on his schooling. It seems to me that at the back of all his everyday practical educating a teacher ought to sense the need to defy such of the definitions as he can, or at least to be profoundly skeptical of them. The best of schools probably is at its most excellent when it forgets for a while to be strictly and formally itself; when the definitions are blurred, when the child is seen to be more important than all the apparatus of lessons and assessments, and in the final analysis much too mysterious to be contained by them (22, p. 74).

Examinations

At the present time there are nine examining boards (mostly universities) offering General Certificate examinations at Ordinary, Advanced, and Scholarship levels. The Ordinary level is intended for students of about sixteen years of age and of high average ability who have completed five years of secondary schooling. It serves as a school leaving examination and in addition, usually with at least four passes, as the credential for entry into the Sixth Form. Two or three years beyond this, at the conclusion of work in the Sixth Form, the Advanced level with passess in two to four subjects serves as a further leaving examination and qualifies for

[18] Evidence of the National Foundation for Educational Research is said to show clear variations of 25 I.Q. points, and to suggest the possibility of much higher variations.

entry to university. Scholarship papers are for university scholarship committees only.

A fundamental problem is said to be the increasing weight of the syllabus, the sheer amount of factual knowledge, leaving inadequate time to attain it. As a result there are steady pressures for more examinations of all kinds—for a new level between the Ordinary and Advanced, for another below the Ordinary level, and even for Modern school leaving examinations. These pressures are resisted by the Minister of Education: while inviting the schools to experiment with their own syllabi and examinations, he undertakes to maintain the present status of the G.C.E. at both Ordinary and Advanced levels. He further urges closer links between schools and employers and more general use of school records and confidential recommendations (16).

The Associated Examining Board, newest of the nine,offers examinations both in the traditional subjects and in various technical, commercial, and art courses. It obviously seeks to give status to subjects which have not heretofore been academically respectable, and has been notably successful with the interesting exception of Shorthand-Typing.

> The Board has prepared and submitted syllabuses in this subject which it believes to be educationally sound and which it believes would meet a demand from many schools. These syllabuses have, however, been rejected by the Secondary School Examinations Council on the grounds of a recent policy decision of the Council that Shorthand-Typing is an unsuitable subject for the General Certificate of Education. The Board is still continuing its discussions with the Council in view of the Board's conviction that the subject should be available at the ordinary level (1).

Implications for Canadian Education

A number of the most obvious features of English education are hardly significant for Canadian education because they simply are not issues. The school uniform, for example, draws the Canadian eye immediately—but few Canadians would propose it. Single-sex schools, similarly, represent situations of curiosity rather than ideas for serious exploration. The same is true of independent schools.

More significant are those ideas, practices and problems which come within the range of Canadian thinking about education and which challenge because of startling similarity or difference. Some of these follow.

Curriculum and Teaching

One of the major differences between English and Canadian education lies in the formal control of curriculum and teaching. Critics of Canadian education have often pointed approvingly to the "freedom and flexibility" of the English curriculum centred

locally in the hands of the Headmaster. Is it possible that we should do well to follow suit?

The English tradition has much to recommend it. It should permit (even require) the creation of programs appropriate to local needs. And to the degree that much if not most of the actual work of curriculum building is done by the deputy, heads of departments, and teachers themselves, the control of teaching might be where it belongs—in the hands of teachers.

A correlative difficulty, however, should be pointed out. The Head operating within his school can be just as autocratic as (and presumably a good deal more eccentric than) any curriculum committee of teachers, teacher educators, and departmental officials operating at a distance. In either case there are of course the other influences—from traditions to examinations— which tend strongly to standardize the curriculum.[14]

Few Canadian educators would deny the dangers of central control, though in Canada it is provincial rather than national, often suggestive rather than prescriptive. And despite some current pressure for a "national" curriculum, few would deny the value of greater local option, as in England. Indeed the Canadian pattern has been undergoing slow revision for some time: more and more local school systems are creating at least part of their own curricula. This pattern may be expected—and rightly—to grow.

It does seem vital to recognize, however, that what actually goes on in the classroom is likely to be as permissive or prescriptive, as appropriate or inappropriate, as intelligent or benighted as the personality and professional understanding and competence of the teacher. Neither much more nor much less. Hence, obviously, the importance of teacher selection and education.

One of the more startling differences between the curriculum of public education in England and in Canada is the inclusion of religious education. Though this is in terms of an agreed syllabus and in said to be non-secterian and non-conversion, in practice it hardly avoids indoctrination. Whether or not it can be justified either in Canada or in England on educational grounds, it obviously could not work in Canada purely on practical grounds.

School Organization

The philosophy of the Canadian *Composite* school is much the same as that of the English *Comprehensive* school.[15] It aims, while grouping students for those fields of study of greatest significance to them, to give them some enriching experience of other fields as well and at the same time to carry on their general education.

[14]Supra, p. 194.
[15]But there is more rigid streaming in the Comprehensive School.

The alternatives, however, are different. There is in most of Canada nothing corresponding to the English Grammar, Technical, or Modern secondary school—but only a smaller school which in terms of its size and the nature of the community which it services is as comprehensive as it can be. Usually, for reasons of prestige and university entrance, academic requirements are met first.

It can be urged as a cardinal principle of education that the ethos of any school should be validated in its own terms. This would mean, in practice, a curriculum genuinely tailored to the developmental needs of students. Perhaps the small Canadian high school (along with a variety of schools in England and elsewhere) could take a cue from this part at least of the philosophy of the English Modern school.

In the light of all the developments since the Hadow Report it would seem in every sense retrograde to attempt the tripartite arrangement of Grammar, Technical, and Modern.

Selection and Grouping

It would seem equally retrograde to attempt selection at 11+ or even, rigidly, at 13+. At any rate the permissive kind of selection that occurs at the latter age in most Canadian schools is more in accordance with the expectation of North American students and parents, and there is of course no shortage of "places" in preferred schools to complicate the problem.

In the matter of streaming and grouping within schools, Canadian educators might well take cognizance of recent developments in England. It has been easy and tempting, in Canada as elsewhere, to assume that all our educational problems would disappear with rigid ability groupings of gifted children, dull children, and various shades and categories between. But in England as elsewhere what has seemed logically correct has not proven psychologically secure. "We advocate the further development of individual and small-group work within classes, and the expansion of more diversified secondary courses . . ." (26, p. 169).

Examinations

Various kinds of liaison between provincial universities and departments of education in Canada make[16] some of the problems of university matriculation rather less complex than in England.[17] The curriculum of the English Grammar school, however, is more closely aligned with university ideas of university preparation. Since a distinctive institution of this kind plays little part in

[16]Mainly through Faculties of Education and provincial curriculum committees.

[17]But there exist similar problems of "academic respectability"—for example, the status of typing and shorthand.

Canadan public education, high schools and universities must continue to work out the problems of articulation with full recognition of the dual function of the high schools.

In Canada as in England there has been pressure for separate leaving examinations at the end of the high school program. But so far the reaction of the provincial departments has been similar to that of the English Ministry of Education—negative. Canadian educators might well note the Minister's alternative recommendation of more general use of confidential records and school recommendations.

Standards

From time to time it has been alleged, on both sides of the Atlantic, that English educational standards are superior. Age for age, and in the traditional academic subjects the achievement of English students probably is superior to that of Canadian students. But standards are relative to goals. Before the whole situation could be accurately assessed, it would be necessary to include a comparison of the number of students educated at specific levels, and in addition some evaluation of personal, social, and indeed various kinds of achievement other than academic.

Meanwhile it should be noted that English children begin school one (often two) years earlier than Canadian children, that class size is more rigidly controlled in England, and that minimum requirements for teacher education are higher. These strengths are so obvious that the moral for Canadian education should be automatically clear.

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THE ALBERTA DIVISIONAL AND COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

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The Problem and Procedure

The primary purpose of this investigation was to survey and consolidate information relative to provincially-appointed-and-paid superintendents of schools. No attempt was made to include data relevant to locally-appointed-and-paid superintendents functioning in cities and larger town districts. High school inspectors, although appointed and paid by the province, were not included within the scope of the study.

An examination of the literature revealed that very little had been written about Alberta superintendents. The writer found that although Rees (8), Mowat (6), and Byrne (2), had given consideration to some aspects of the Alberta superintendency, many other aspects had apparently failed to attract the interest of investigators. As a result, the use of questionnaire and interview techniques was found necessary in gathering data on many topics.

Findings

Selection of Superintendents

On October 1, 1954, the Alberta Department of Education issued a formal mimeographed page listing the qualifications sought in candidates for the superintendency (4). This statement mentions one or two qualifications not mentioned previously and is therefore worthy of note:

> N.B. The qualifications outlined herein are for purposes of guidance only. Excellence in some respect may be deemed to compensate for under-qualification in some other, with the exception of item 1 and 2.
>
> A candidate for appointment as a superintendent of schools (Department of Education) shall be expected to present by way of qualifications the following:
>
> 1. Possession of a permanent teaching certificate issued by the Minister of Education.
> 2. Possession of a bachelor's degree from the University of Alberta, or the equivalent from some other University.
> 3. Possession of one year's graduate study. (The combination of 1, 2, and 3, shall be such that the amount of professional as opposed to academic traning shall equal two years.)
> 4. Superior mental capacity as evidenced by quality of scholastic records.
> 5. Teaching experience of not less than five years.

6. Administrative experience as vice-principal, principal, or supervisory officer of not less than two years.
7. Evidence of compatibility and assumption of responsibility in relation to community, professional, and social organizations.

Legal status of superintendents

The legal status of the superintendent is defined in law as advisory, supervisory, and regulatory. In practice, however, the superintendent is called upon to perform many administrative duties in the area to which he is assigned. His status with his board, or school committee, often depends upon his ability to deal with administrative problems.

An examination of Section 199 of the School Act reveals that the only regulatory power possessed by superintendents is that of inspector of schools. Other than this, the primary duty of the superintendent is to confer with boards, and to advise them concerning educational problems and needs in his area. His general supervision over schools, teachers, property, and services in the division is subject to the direction of the board.

Nevertheless, in practice the superintendent is assuming responsibility in administrative and policy-forming matters. Mowat (6), in writing of the relationship of the superintendent to his board, has very clearly indicated this. It is becoming increasingly recognized that efficient operation of large administrative units, such as the Alberta school division or county, is contingent upon intelligent, long-range planning. Further, there is a growing conviction that expert, professional advice is necessary in formulating long-range policies. Moreover, the idea that time and knowledge of a professional nature are necessary in carrying out planning and policies is becoming more current in the thinking of boards and school committees. It seems likely, therefore, that the close-working relationship presently existing between the board, the secretary, and the superintendent, will eventually lead to an arrangement whereby the superintendent and the secretary will become the strong, executive arm of elected boards. It seems essential that power and authority remain the prerogative of elected boards. Moreover, planning and policy should follow sound professional advice. The implementation of planning and policy should, and does, fall upon the executive arm of the policy-setting body. It seems clear that the more the confidence of boards grows with regard to superintendents, the more likely it will be that superintendents will become the chief executive officers of their inspectorates.

The superintendent is mentioned in The School Act in many connections. The most important sections are paraphrased as follows: the board is obliged to consult the superintendent regard-

ing educational problems and to consider his recommendations; the superintendent is required to hear any representations regarding school buildings, furniture, equipment, and the betterment and extension of educational facilities in any divisional district; the superintendent may sometimes be required to assume the duties of official trustee. In addition to the foregoing, the superintendent of schools may recommend the establishment of a night school. He may not attempt to deprive a child of any educational advantage for failure to take part in religious instruction in a school. Promotions made by teachers are subject to his approval. His certificate as to the educational standing of a child is final and conclusive. Suspensions of pupils from school must be reported by principals to the superintendent. The superintendent may exempt children from school attendance for specified periods. He may recommend the exclusion of mentally retarded children from school. He is designated as the attendance officer for the area of his inspectorate.

Training of Superintendents

The most striking aspect of the training of superintendents is the variation in academic qualifications at the time of appointment. Some superintendents had spent twice as much time as others in academic preparation. Although three superintendents had completed seven years of training, others had completed only three or four. The average superintendent had spent approximately five years in academic preparation prior to appointment. Since Department of Education policy states that excellence in some respect compensates for under-qualification in some other, it is assumed that other types of excellence compensated for the lack of a full year of graduate study on the part of the thirty-four per cent of the appointees.

Seventy-five per cent of the supervisory staff have spent some time in further study following appointment. It is clear that although forty-nine per cent of newly appointed superintendents have qualified for one bachelor's degree only, at present only twenty-four per cent remain in this qualification category. The percentage of superintendents holding two bachelors degrees has doubled. Increases are evident in the numbers holding master's degrees, combinations of a master's and a bachelor's degree, or two master's degrees. However, it is evident that sixty-one per cent of the present supervisory staff have not qualified for degrees beyond the bachelor's level.

It is interesting to compare the academic qualifications of superintendents with the best-trained principals and teachers presently serving in divisions and counties. In June, 1957, seventeen

inspectorates had one or more principals who had attained higher academic qualifications than the superintendent appointed to the area. There were twenty-six such principals in the seventeen areas. At the same time, twenty-five teachers, in ten inspectorates, had attained higher academic qualifications than the superintendent.

Teaching and Administrative Experience

The teaching experience of superintendents has been varied. Although seventy per cent have taught in one-room schools, most had remained in this type of school for only short periods ranging from one to three years. Similarly, although seventy-two per cent had taught in village schools, many remained three years or fewer in these positions. In addition, sixty-four per cent of the present staff have had teaching experience in town schools, and fifty per cent in city schools.

The fact that the preponderance of this teaching time had been spent in high school grades must have posed a problem for many of the appointees. Following appointment, most superintendents found that the greater part of their duties in supervision and the improvement of instruction lay in the elementary and junior high school grades. Since backgrounds of the majority of superintendents suggest administrative capability and competency in high school teaching, it appears that for many, appointment brought duties and responsibilities for which their past experience had given scant preparation.

The present supervisory staff has been chosen to a large extent from persons who had served in various administrative capacities in Alberta schools. A decidedly village and town school administrative background is apparent: eighty per cent of all the administrative positions that had been held by superintendents prior to appointment had been in villages and towns. There is variation in the size of schools that had been administered by these men. One-half had been principals of schools of four to ten rooms, whereas one-third had been in charge of schools with twelve to eighteen rooms. Pre-appointment experience ranges from the four superintendents who had had no administrative experience to the three superintendents who had been principals of schools of twenty or more rooms.

Duties of Superintendents

Although there is considerable variation in the opinions of superintendents regarding the importance of many of the duties they presently perform, it is possible to gauge the amount of time that superintendents spend in their performance. Supervision of instruction and preparation of reports and correspondence account

for fifty-six per cent of the average superintendent's time. Of this, thirty-two per cent is spent in supervision, and twenty-four per cent in correspondence and the preparation of reports. As Table I indicates, each of his other duties takes less than ten per cent of his time. The rank of these other duties, from the standpoint of the time required for their performance, is as follows: (1) in-service training, (2) organization of the units of the school system, (3) attendance at board and sub-divisional meetings, (4) administration of personnel, (5) public relations, (6) planning and improving school plants and facilities, (7) work for the Department of Education, (8) auxiliary services. All of the ten duties, except work for the Department of Education, and time spent in the preparation of administrative and teacher reports for the use of the Department, may fairly well be allocated to the local areas to which superintendents have been appointed. If the twenty-four per cent of time the average superintendent spends with reports and correspondence is arbitrarily cut in half, with half designated as a provincial duty, and half as a local duty), a fair estimate of the division of the average superintendent's time is possible. On this basis, he spends eighty-four per cent of his time in duties pertaining to the local area, and sixteen per cent in duties of provincial origin. This estimate is very close to the result obtained by Rees (8), in his study of the duties of Alberta superintendents.

TABLE I

PERCENTAGE OF TIME THE AVERAGE SUPERINTENDENT SPENDS IN THE PERFORMANCE OF TEN DUTIES

Duties	Per Cent of Time
Supervision of Instruction	32
Reports and Correspondence	24
In-service Training	8
Organization of the Units of the School System	7
Board and Sub-Divisional Meetings	7
Administration of Personnel	6
Public Relations	6
Planning and Improving School Plants and Facilities	5
Work for the Department of Education	4
Auxiliary Services	4

Superintendents are actively engaged in the performance of administrative duties in their inspectorates. An interesting aspect of this involvement is the great variation in the divisions as to what is expected of the superintendent. For eleven of the eighteen ad-

ministrative duties surveyed, (hiring and placing teachers; hiring and planning the work of special teachers and supervisors; improving school caretaking; planning attendance areas, surveying building requirements; planning school buildings and teacherages; organizing pupil and teacher supplies; organizing and operating divisional libraries; operating rental schemes; organizing and improving health services; planning services in special areas such as shop and home economics), the variation runs all the way from delegation of the duty entirely to the superintendent to the expectance of advice only from him.

Certain administrative arrangements seem to be favored over others by virtue of the fact that a majority of divisions have adopted them. Twenty-three boards, for instance, delegate the hiring of teachers to superintendents. Other administrative areas in which delegation of the duty to superintendents is most favored are: organizing and operating divisional libraries, and organizing special programs of instruction. The arrangement whereby superintendents discharge the duty with some assistance from the board and secretary is favored by the greatest number of divisions for the hiring and placing of principals, and for planning and organizing special programs of instruction such as shop work and home economics. The partnership arrangement, whereby superintendents, boards, and secretaries act as equal parnters, is favored by a majority of divisions for planning attendance areas; surveying building requirements; planning schools and teacherages; planning and organizing teacher supplies; operating rental schemes; and budgeting for school operations. The arrangement whereby the boards and secretaries discharge the duty, with some help from the superintendents, is favored by the majority of divisions for improving school caretaking; organizing pupil transportation services; and deciding and arranging repairs to buildings, grounds, and equipment. Calling upon the superintendent to act as an advisor only is favored by most divisions for the hiring of school van drivers; hiring of caretakers; and organizing health services.

An analysis of the eighteen administrative duties mentioned shows that from fifty-six to ninety-eight per cent of Alberta's superintendents appear in the first three categories, (which represent most active involvement of the supervisory staff), for all but six of the eighteen duties. Some of the factors which may account for some variation in the involvement in administrative duties are evident. Involvement may depend upon the superintendents' willingness to assume these duties. It may depend, too, upon their administrative abilities and the confidence in which they are held by their boards. Finally, their involvement may be affected by the

strengths or weaknesses of their boards along administrative lines.

In a normal year, the average superintendent spends thirty-two per cent of his time in supervision. At the same time, he appears to spend seven per cent of his time in the organization of the units of the school system; board and sub-divisional meetings take seven per cent of his time; administration of personnel takes six per cent; planning and improving school plants and facilities takes five per cent; involvement with auxiliary services takes four per cent. Thus, at least twenty-seven per cent of the average superintendent's time is spent in duties which are strictly administrative in nature. Moreover, the superintendent spends twenty-four per cent of his time in preparing reports and correspondence. Just what proportion of this is devoted to correspondence related to administrative matters has not been assessed. Nor has it been possible to assess accurately how much of the time spent in public relations is directly related to administrative matters. Explanations of changes with respect to policy, whether it relates to instruction, administration, building, and so on, are often given by the superintendent in meetings, addresses, and reports. Since eight per cent of the average superintendent's time is devoted to public relations, it appears safe to assume that some part of this is devoted to administrative matters. Thus, at least one-third of the average superintendent's time is devoted to administrative matters. This equals the time he spends in supervision.

Superintendent-Board Relationships

Superintendents state that the most satisfying relationship existing between them and their boards is the support, co-operation, and confidence they receive from trustees. Satisfaction is expressed concerning the caliber, abilities, and attitudes of boards; the teamwork existing between boards and superintendents; the willingness of boards to accept the advice offered by superintendents; and the minimum of interference encountered.

Some relationships between superintendents and boards are apparently causing difficulties. Narrow, sub-divisional attitudes on the part of certain trustees are most often mentioned as causing difficulty. Misunderstandings occur through the lack of well-defined policies, or through the setting aside of established policies. Appointments, placements, and transfers of personnel are seemingly affected by the ambitions and prejudices of trustees. Finally, concern is felt by some superintendents regarding the great amount of administrative detail and responsibility allocated to them.

TABLE II

MOST HARASSING PROBLEM AREAS

Problem	No. of Times Mentioned
The Teacher Shortage	49
Administrative Duties	38
Public Relations	35
Clerical and Office Work	30
Supervision	23
Salaries	5
Board Politics and Sub-Divisional Attitudes	5
Others	10

Problems of Superintendents

Table II shows a comparison of the number of times certain problem areas are mentioned by superintendents. If the intensity of these problems may be judged by the number of times each is mentioned, the following order of problem areas emerges: (1) the teacher shortage, (2) administrative duties, (3) public relations, (4) clerical and office work, (5) supervision, (6) board politics and sub-divisional thinking, (7) salaries, (8) others. Specific problems mentioned five or more times are shown in Table III.

TABLE III

PROBLEMS OF ALBERTA SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS

Problem	No. of Times Mentioned
The shortage of teachers	45
Office work and correspondence	15
Improving instructional deficiencies	13
Parent-teacher-pupil altercations	11
Writing reports on teachers	9
Enforcing school attendance	8
Time demands of the position	7
Dealing with strained relations resulting from long periods of teacher salary negotiations	6
Board politics and sub-divisional attitudes	5
Providing and improving school plants	5
Dealing with problem teachers	5

A striking variety is evident in other problems mentioned by superintendents. One states that his foremost problem is "living in a small community" with the attendant "cultural and educational

lack, living conditions, and loss on property". Another finds difficulty with "curbs by non-professional educators—board members". Still another is concerned over "interference by the A.T.A. as an organization". A fourth superintendent mentions "Department of Education-board articulation" as a pressing problem. One member of the supervisory staff finds that a major problem stems from "religious and racial differences in the community", while another has difficulty "handling two bi-lingual districts and fringe areas". Still other members of the supervisory staff are concerned over the major problems generated through "having to stay away from home", "handling cases of mental deficiency", and the "lack of well-qualified board members". It is evident that there is no dearth in the variety of problems facing divisional and county superintendents.

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THE FIVE SCHOOL PROJECT DROPOUT STUDY

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In October 1953 the Five School Project began in earnest to get down to the business of studying some common problems of the five high schools of Leduc, Wetaskiwin, Camrose, Ponoka, and Lacombe. In addition to the five principals concerned, several superintendents and high school inspectors were in attendance from the inception of the Project. This admixture of administrative levels has proven to be an object lesson in educational communication. It also provided a meeting place for a grass-root element for problem finding, and resource personnel for problem solving.

One of the first problems tackled was that of the holding power of our schools. Consensus of opinion affairmed the need for doing a better job. In the light of changing social conditions, schools cannot abdicate their responsibility to our complex democratic society.

Problems

The breakdown of the general problem led to these particular questions. What percentage of our students actually completed grades ten to twelve? Why did so many withdraw? What factors were most significant in their withdrawal? What could the schools do in answer to this problem?

Several hypotheses were suggested and immediate action was taken to obtain tangible evidence of their tenability. It was decided that all students in the 1953-54 classes be studied for a period of three or four years. A questionnaire was drawn up and examined by the Project Group. In its final draft, it sought answers to these questions:

1. When did the student withdraw?
2. Was the withdrawal caused by transfer, illness, death or by economic factors?
3. Was the withdrawal associated with any differences in parental occupation?
4. What was the correlation between withdrawal and intelligence and/or grade nine reading scores?
5. What happened to the dropouts in the year subsequent to their school leaving?

Some evidence of what had been done in other places, in search for answers to these problems, was found in Albert E. Hohol's

Thesis "A Review of the Evidence on the Problem of Why Youth Leave School" (2). This excellent summary of several studies assisted in structuring not only the above questionnaire for the principals, but also another of a different type for the students. The latter was sent to all the students of the '54 class in June 1957.

The principals completed their questionnaires by the Fall of 1957. The replies to the student questionnaires numbered 218 from a total of 392 mailed. The sampling from students leaving prematurely numbered 30% of the total.

The student questionnaire sought answers in the form of opinions as to their personal problems, extra class activities, counselling within the school, home life, subjects taken in school, and teachers.

Results

1. *The Principals' Questionnaire*:

Fifty-eight per cent of students who entered grade ten in 1954, excluding transfers, did not complete their high school diplomas. By way of contrast, Dr. Charles M. Allen, summarizing the data for the United States as a whole, reports that 54 per cent of students remain in school from grade five to the completion of grade twelve (1, pp. 6-7). This compares with the 42 per cent of our grade ten entrants achieving the grade twelve diploma.

Students from homes where at least one of the parents had a minimum of a Bachelor's degree had the best record with 55% completions, while those from unskilled parental backgrounds recorded a completion rate of 35%.

Sixty-two per cent of those with intelligence quotients of 115 or over completed diplomas while those below 105 constituted 19%.

Fifteen per cent of those who did not complete their diplomas, did complete 65 credits.

Forty-nine per cent of those whose grade nine reading results tested 50% or better completed diplomas as compared to 17% below this level.

2. *The Students' Questionnaire*:

Thirty-eight per cent felt that a high school diploma was not very important as preparation for the work they wanted to do later.

Forty-seven per cent reported that the extra class activities organized within the school were unimportant to them.

Twenty-seven per cent felt that the school could have been of greater assistance to them in problems of a personal nature, but 41% indicated that such problems should be of no concern to *the* school.

Twelve per cent gave economic difficulties as reason for leaving school, but 29% reported lack of parental interest as a major cause for early leaving.

In school subjects, least concern was felt for the cultural courses, while mathematics, English, and science in that order were considered most important. About 60% specified a felt need for more vocational type courses and the remainder considered more time should be given to the academic.

Observations and Recommendations

1. All participating schools offer an excellent range of academic courses, yet 38% of those students with an I.Q. of 115 or better failed to complete a diploma. This strongly suggests the need of more flexibility within the academic programme itself, leading, perhaps, into fields of higher training other than university entrance.

It is therefore recommended that a follow-up be made in this related area of flexibility in relation to mathematics, science, English, and social studies. Plans have already been made in some of these school for ability grouping according to subject achievement. The disadvantage of ranking by general standing according to average Grade IX scores should be overcome.

2. Forty-five per cent of students reported a lack of interest among teachers regarding personal welfare. This problem of lack of teacher-pupil communication may be directly due to over-specialization of the teaching staff.

It is recommended that administrators attempt to delimit the number of students each teacher is expected to teach in any given day. Hypothetically, a teacher may be more effective in human relations if he meets his students in more than one class.

Closely allied to this problem, administrators should seek to broaden the participation of teachers in extra class activities. This is difficult because most high schools are short-staffed and the teachers' academic work leaves little opportunity for such service.

It is recommend that administrators press for more staff to cope with the need for broader teacher-pupil relationships.

3. Twenty-nine per cent of the replies indicated that parents or guardians showed little interest in the school life of their children. Without general strong public support of education, administrative efforts to reduce the drop-out rate are largely futile.

It is recommended that educators at all levels search for better means to stimulate public support for education.

4. The cultural type of school subjects, such as art, music, and drama, seemed least important to students reporting. This points

up the fact that the traditional aim of preparation for university is still deeply rooted among many educators and parents alike. The large majority of students in high school today are not academic, and deserve more consideration in curriculum planning. The prestige of matriculation subjects leads many students into paths that can only end in frustration and resentment.

It is recommended that an effort be made to gain support, both within the school and without, for broader educational objectives. Perhaps this can best be achieved by publicizing the value of other types of training institutions.

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EGERTON RYERSON

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Egerton Ryerson was twenty-three years old when in 1826 he was plunged into a controversy with the formidable John Strachan, Bishop of the Anglican Church, over the free church question. Bishop Strachan had just preached a powerful, sincere, but somewhat ungenerous sermon. In it he intimated, actually took for granted, that the Anglican Church was the Established Church of Upper Canada. He laid monopolistic claim to all revenues from sales or leases of the clergy reserves lands. He appealed to the British Imperial Parliament for a grant of £300,000 for the Anglican Church in Canada. And finally he spoke disparagingly of the Methodists. He assured his congregation that the Methodist were American in their sympathies and disloyal to Canada: they had fought faint-heartedly in the battles of 1812-14. The Methodist preachers were, he declared, ignorant, ill-trained, and uncouth (5, I, p. 23).

Naturally this was displeasing to the Methodists. Numerically they were by far the largest denomination in Upper Canada, took pride in their loyalty, and believed their preachers were rigorously selected and well-trained.

Obviously the attack called for a reply. In fact the Anglican Church had never been made an established church in Canada; and in fact the clergy reserves—well over two million acres of land scattered all over the country— had never been earmarked for the Anglican Church. The Act setting them aside had merely said "for the use of the clergy." And finally all non-Anglican denominations were violently opposed to having any established church whatever.

Two Methodist ministers were assigned to write a reply, but only Ryerson's was received. So moderate, comprehensive, brilliant and convincing was this production that an immediate printing was ordered. To all non-Anglican denominations it was a message of deliverance. Thus was launched the bitter and famous controversy over the free church and over the clergy reserves.

Along with other religious denominations the Methodists of 1826 suffered from certain legal disabilities. They were debarred from holding land for churches or for parsonages or for burial grounds. Their ministers could not perform marriage ceremonies. By 1830

all these legal restrictions had been removed, thanks largely to the efforts of Egerton Ryerson.

It might be thought that Ryerson was a brash young upsart to be crossing swords at age twenty-three with an Anglican Church bishop, and to be spokesman for the entire Methodist denomination. Actually he was bred of a good family, well educated, and he was both humble and evangelistic. He had composed his reply while riding as a Methodist preacher on his first circuit. He had composed it on horseback or by the small lights in settlers' cabins, as Julius Caesar and Napoleon once composed before him. He preached once each month at York and after that from thirty to forty times per month at meeting places along the roads and trails of his circuit.

Ryerson's family background was United Empire Loyalist, and back of that Dutch and Danish on his father's side, English on his mother's. Egerton's father had come with his family to New Brunswick, married there, and later moved with his own family to Ontario, near London. He was Anglican in church matters. There were six sons and two daughters. Egerton was the fifth of the sons. All four of the older brothers turned Methodist and all became preachers. Egerton, being only sixteen at the time of his defection, was ordered by an exasperated father to leave home or give up the Methodists. He left. Two years later his father relented a little and asked the lad to come home. He returned and for three years carried the responsibility of the farm, until he was twenty-one.

The education of a great man is always interesting. Ryerson was a farm boy, but he attended a grammar school at no great distance from home. At fourteen he was sent further afield to another grammar school. This justified its name by teaching nothing but English grammar from morning till night. Egerton loved it. He ended up by substituting for the masters when they were ill. He found time, though, to be converted to Methodism, and this led to the exile I have already mentioned. While banished from home he was for two years tutor in a school near London. One day his father appeared and said, "Egerton, come home." Three years later, and after a desperate struggle with his conscience—which urged him to stay and look after the farm—he decided on carrying forward his education. He chose a school in Hamilton, a sort of academy, which offered good schooling in Latin and Greek. These studies he attacked so fiercely and devotely that a brain fever developed and nearly carried him off. His long convalescence gave him time to re-assess the purpose of his life. This time he experienced a typical conversion, a profound religious awakening after the manner of Carlyle. He visited some religious exercise being conducted by one of his brothers, found his brother ill, and himself

took over the services. He was frightened, fearful, exhilarated, and comforted. He had found what he thought was his life's work. But destiny had other things in store for him (5, I, p. --4).

Ryerson rode the circuits for three years—York, Cobourg, Credit River, an Indian mission. He was evangelical in spirit, a man of unusual devotion, energy and urgency. He gloried in the Indian mission at Credit, because the Indians were desperately in need of salvation and civilization. But his qualities were already known. In 1829, when a Methodist Conference decided to establish an official organ of the Church, Ryerson was chosen as editor. The paper was the *Christian Guardian.* It had a distinguished career for upwards of a century. With some brief interruptions Ryerson was its editor for twenty years. Through its columns he carried forward with restrained force and dignity the nineteenth century battle in Upper Canada for what we now call the four freedoms.

In passing, I should add that Bishop Strachan's plan for an established Anglican Church was ultimately defeated by logic and the march of events. The clergy reserves bitterness was finally dissolved when in 1854 the land was allocated to educational purposes. Ryerson had advocated this solution for twenty-five years. But significant as these matters are, I must come to Ryerson's claim to our particular praise—his contributions to education.

I suppose that religion and education are inevitably linked. In any event, Ryerson was on the side of free schools, urgent for the universal provision of common public schools, open freely to *all* children. Now accepted by everyone, this idea was anything but popular in 1840 in Upper Canada. Oddly enough, it was again Bishop Strachan and the Anglican Church in opposition. What they wanted was the English school system introduced into Canada: first, grammer schools, exclusive and fee-paying for children of the well-to-do upper classes; a university dominated by the church; and for the common people such kitchen and hedgerow education as they could contrive (2, p. 42).

The battle was joined over Strachan's plans for a Church college in York. It was ,of course, to be Anglican and endowed. The Methodists rather stole a march on him by building at Cobourg, in 1836, a college of liberal arts open to everyone on equal terms. It was named Upper Canada Academy. Ryerson was sent to England to raise much needed funds, and to secure a royal charter. In 1841 the royal charter was granted, the institution was renamed Victoria College, and Ryerson was appointed first principal.

I must digress for a moment to give you a glimpse of the new principal, aged thirty-eight, from the pen of a student, William Orimiston, later to become one of the brightest ornaments of the

Presbyterian ministry. "He (Ryerson) was at the time in the prime of a magnificient manhood. His well-developed, finely-proportioned, firmly-knit frame, his broad, lofty brow, his keen, penetrating eyes, and his genial, benignant face, all proclaimed him every inch a man. His mental powers, vigorous and well-disciplined; his attainments in literature, varied and extensive; his fame as a preacher of great pathos and power; his manner affable and winning; his presence magnetic and impressive . . ." and so on to considerable length. (4, p. 19). Dr. Ormiston and hundreds of students evidently looked upon this man as a demigod. He was principal for four years, but even in the very midst of that term he was appointed superintendent of schools for Upper Canada.

This was a challenge indeed, and indeed the challenge engaged the great abilities of a great man for thirty-three years. His first step was to visit the schools of Europe and the United States. Two years on this mission convinced him that the systems of Ireland, Prussia and Massachusetts had most to offer as models for state schools.

Education in the Upper Canada of 1843 was not all order and efficiency. The school acts of 1841 and 1843 had provided a framework for elementary schools and allocated some grant funds. But the structure was sketchy and infirm. As an illustration, a school could be built and maintained only for those who desired it and were willing to pay. There was no general tax levy. There was no provision for the training of teachers. There was no central authority to guide, direct, and constrain. It was in a sense local option applied to education.

Ryerson, through a series of measures, fought through a series of legislatures, created a system which today we think of as the Canadian system of education. Familiar to all of us, we need only remind ourselves of its salient features. We take them for granted as the right and proper features. Here are some of them: a provincial authority such as a council of public instruction or a department of education to make regulations for the conduct of schools and to see they are enforced; a staff of well-qualified inspectors or superintendents, appointed by the central body, and conmmissioned to supervise and assist; a system of teacher training institutions; a schedule of teacher certification provisions; a grant structure; compulsory education; a delegation of authority to local school districts, divisions or cities, as the case may be (3).

These and many other matters of school organization Ryerson devised, piloted through legislative processes, revised, amended, and supervised through the third of a century he held office as

superintendent of schools. In itself it was a notable life's work for one man.

Ryerson was retired from office in 1876 on full pay. In his remaining years he completed three books: *The Story of My Life, The United Empire Loyalists of American,* and *Canadian Methodism.* He died in 1882. Seven years later,, through popular subscription, a splendid statue of his memory was erected on the grounds of the Toronto Normal School, which he had established. The inscription read:

EGERTON RYERSON
FOUNDER
OF THE
SCHOOL SYSTEM OF ONTARIO

As founder of the Ontario school system he was founder also of the school systems of our four western provinces.

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ROLE CONFLICT IN THE LEADERSHIP OF THE COMPOSITE HIGH SCHOOL

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The principal of a composite high school is subject to many pressures which come from a variety of individuals and groups. Because of the large size which is typical of the composite high school, the community it serves is usually more heterogeneous than that of smaller high schools. The pressures on the principal, consequently, tend to come from a wider diversity of sources. Moreover, the comprehensive nature of the program of the school—including academic, technical and commercial courses—multiplies the kinds of pressure to which the principal is subjected.

The existence of pressures upon a principal, troublesome though they may be, seen to be an inevitable aspect of any administrative position. The pressure arise from the expectations which individuals and groups hold regarding the actions of the principal in his job. Expectations held by the superintendent, by teachers, pupils, and parents, for example, are readily transformed into pressure upon the principal. This is especially so when individuals and groups differ in their expectation of the principal's behavior with respect to the same matter. Situations of this sort, known as role conflict situations, are the subject of this investigation. While feeling an obligation to satisfy all expectations, the principal is forced to make choices between them and must face the threat of sanctions from the unsatisfied individuals and groups. This exposure of the principal to incompatible behavioral expectations constitutes his role conflict.

I. The Problem

The problem of the study reported here (1) was to detect specific instances of conflict in the role of the principal of the composite high school. The term "role" was used in its sociological sense and was defined as the expected pattern of behavior attached to a particular status in an institution. In this sense, then, the role of the principal is defined by the expectations held for him by relevant alter groups in the school situation. The groups considered to be relevant for the purpoes of this study were superintendents teachers, pupils, and parents.

Two kinds of role conflict were investigated. The first was that conflict which arises when there is agreement within the respective alter groups on what the principal should do but disagreement between the groups. The second kind of conflict considered was that which results from disagreement within a given alter group.

Specific conflict situations were sought within six broad areas of the field of activity of the principal. These were school organization, staff relations, instructional program, extra-curricular program, student behavior, and public relations.

II. Method

The general method used was that of the case study. To minimize the personality factor in the role and to make the findings of the study more generally applicable, the population for the study was obtained from two composite high schools, one in Calgary and one in Edmonton. Two Grade Ten classes in each school were used as the student population. The parents of the pupils in these classes comprised the parent population, while the teacher population was drawn from interested members of both staffs. One superintendent and one assistant superintendent in each of the two cities made up the superintendent population.

The basic data for the study were collected by means of a questionnaire which determined the expectations held by the alter group for the principal's behavior. Each item in the instrument was a statement of a particular behavior or policy which the principal might adopt. The statements were categorized according to the six areas of the principal's role referred to above. For each item the respondents were asked to check one of three choices: "Agree", "Disagree", or "No Preference". The content of the items was drawn from interviews, the literature, and personal experience. As a result of a pilot study, the original 83 items were reduced in number to 60. Then, in its final form, the instrument was administered to 123 pupils, 78 parents, 43 teachers, and 4 superintendents.

After tabulataing the results, the data were processed to discover statistically significant differences in intergroup responses. The chi square test was used to eliminate chance differences and the 1% level of confidence was adopted as indicating sufficient difference between groups to constitute a conflict. The frequency scores for each item were then converted to percentages of the total population to determine the sources of conflict.

Intra-group conflicts were determined by disregarding the "No Preference" score and converting the "Agree" and "Disagree" frequences to percentages of those in each group showing a pre-

ference. A significant intra-group conflict was defined as a difference of 20% or more between the "Agree" and "Disagree" percentages of any alter group.

III. Results

Thirty-eight of the sixty statements, or 63%, produced conflicts between groups beyond the 1% level of confidence. Fifty-four statements, or 90% exhibited intra-group conflicts of 20% or greater. Of these statements over one-quarter showed conflicts within three of the four groups and another third resulted in significant conflicts within two groups. The total number of intra-group conflicts expressed by the four alter groups over the sixty statements was 106. In almost every case of conflict between groups there was also a significant conflict within one or more of the groups concerned. Intra-group conflicts however did not necessarily imply inter-group conflicts over the same issue, though in many cases this was so.

In nearly half of the inter-group conflicts it was found that two groups paired off in opposition to the other two. This pairing followed two patterns: superintendents joined parents in opposition to teachers and pupils, or pupils joined parents in opposition to teachers and superintendents. The first pairing, in which the subordinates were opposed to the superordinates, occurred most frequently over statements related to supervision by the principal. In the second pairing the home was opposed to the school in matters were individual choice was restricted by professional opinion.

In an almost equal number of inter-group conflicts a single group stood out in opposition to the other three. The pupil group was the center of most conflict in the extra-curricular sector and the teacher group in the instructional program sector. These two groups, which are most directly affected by the day-to-day operation of the school, were responsible for the largest share of inter-group conflicts.

In a few cases conflicts took a rather different form. These conflicts arose from all groups differing in the extent to which they agreed with a statement rather than from one or two groups lining up in marked opposition to the other groups. This result was evident regarding statements favoring ability grouping of pupils. In the order of most support for such statements, the groups aligned themselves as follows: superintendents, teachers, parents, pupils.

As to the subject of the conflicts, the highest percentage of inter-group conflicts was found in the statements dealing with extra-curricular activities. The least conflict, both within and between groups, was discovered to be over matters of discipline. The intra-group conflicts were most evident in the sector concerned with the

instructional program. This sector accounted for more than one-quarter of the total intra-group conflicts for the six sectors. No one alter group seemed more susceptible to intra-group conflict than any other, either in extent or degree.

IV. Discussion

The case study method used in this research necessitates limiting the conclusions to the two schools and the particular populations from which the samples were drawn. Because the instrument might have used other statements, resulting in a different set of responses, it is not possible to generalize beyond the actual statements used.

The purpose of the study, to detect specific instances of conflict in the role of the principal, was accomplished. A large number of significant conflicts were found both within and between the four alter groups. These conflicts were shown to exist in all six aspects of the principal's role which have been investigated. A summary of conclusions for each sectors follows.

In relation to student behavior, an important finding is the lack of conflict over the principal's role. Not only do the replies indicate a high degree of concensus among all groups, but they indicate a strong support for both teachers and principals in dealing with discipline cases. This may be the result of the current wave of public opinion in favor of strengthened school discipline, or it may simply indicate support for a function of the principal which is well established in tradition. Consideration should be given to the possibility, also, that the school administration itself may have contributed substantially to the establishment of concensus of expectations on this subject.

The extra-curricular conflicts reflect the growing independence of high school pupils who desire the right to choose and direct their own athletic, cultural and social activities. Teacher-centered conflicts in this area may be the expression of differing philosophies of education and value systems.

The statements in the instructional program sector of the questionnaire reflected the changing functions of the principal in the modern school. They served to uncover one of the most contentious sectors of the principal's role. There was considerable conflict over the extent of the principal's supervisory activities, and also over the extent to which teachers, departments and schools should work out independent programs and examination policies. Both teachers and pupils were found to be apprehensive of too much supervisory control by the principal, although both parents and superintendents regarded supervision by the principal as desirable. Within the teacher group, however, there was a considerable difference in

expectations regarding supervision. No doubt this difference in expectations reflects the difference between staff members in their understanding of, and readiness to accept, the newer concepts of supervision. A particular view of democratic rights seems to enter into the conflict situations found under the school organization sector. A definition of democracy in education as requiring the same opportunity for all ,rather than as requiring equal opportunity for all, seems to be at the root of the conflict. Conflict over "streaming" of pupils according to ability, and special treatment for the gifted, are examples of this. Superintendents and teachers were more ready than others to accept the "equality of opportunity" definition. Democratic rights in the form of an individual's right of choice would seem to account for the opinion of pupils and parents that their preferences should be weighed more than professional judgment in selecting a pupil's courses.

Staff meeting planning and content produced conflicts between the teacher and superintendent groups in the personnel sector of the questionnaire. It was found that the superintendents expect the principal to obtain teacher participation in policy formation to a greater extent than the teachers themselves do. Teacher participation in policy formation, then is not universally demanded by teachers. Many teachers do not yet appear ready to accept the responsibility of a shared form of administration. Conflict within the teacher group would indicate, however, that some have already achieved this state of readiness.

In the public relations field the superintendents do not support strong direction of Home and School activities by the principal, but at present other groups seem to feel a necessity for this. Both pupils and parents would like to see a principal actively defend his school through replying to unfavorable publicity, but the superintendents do not agree that this is desirable.

V. Summary and Conclusion

This research has examined the highest status position of leadership in two of Alberta's most complex high schools. It has found that the definition of the principal's role by several alter groups includes many inconsistent and incompatible expectations. It has been suggested that these are caused by a lack of concensus on the definition of democracy in education and administration; on the existence of varying degrees of readiness to accept newer concepts of the role of the principal and teacher; and on the balance between the rights and preferences of the public and the authority of professionally-based opinion.

While this research investigated the expectations of four major

alter groups it is the principal's own conception of his role which is the determining factor. It is this conception which determines his role behavior. It is through his role behavior that he has the greatest opportunity to modify alter group expectations. However, though the role incumbent may change the expectations of alter groups, the definition of his role, according to the role theorists, is still the product of all alter group expectations. It can never be defined by the principal alone.

This points to the important conclusion that a major task of the composite high school principal is to harmonize and unify the expectations of the major alter groups towards his role. It is possible that, through awareness of the underlying conflicts, a well-conducted personnel and public relations program can materially reduce the pressures imposed by conflicting expectations and enable the principal more effectively to guide his school towards its goals.

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A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE GRADE IX PRINCIPAL'S RATING TO PERFORMANCE ON THE ALBERTA GRADE IX DEPARTMENTAL EXAMINATIONS

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Periodically, the question of school accreditation of Grade IX students in preference to the present system of province-wide examinations is raised.

This question is important in view of the rapidly growing Grade IX school population, and in view of the costs attendant upon the preparation or purchase of suitable tests. In addition there is the immediate problem of establishing marks for these students who, for one reason or another, failed to write the Grade IX Provincial examinations. No supplemental papers are presently provided and absentees are graded solely on the basis of Principals' ratings.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of these Principal's ratings in predicting the Grade IX Departmental final mark and to what degree they may be improved by the addition of a test of academic aptitude.

It is the practice in Alberta to test all Grade IX students in six subjects in the final month of the Grade IX school year. Promotion to Grade X is based on performance on these tests. The subjects tested are literature, social studies A, social studies B (language), mathematics, science, reading, and the general test which is a test of academic aptitude. With the exception of the reading test and the general test, the tests are prepared for the Department of Education by appointed school officials and are subject to review and approval by an examination committee in each subject. These tests vary from one and a half to two and a half hours in length and are composed of multiple choice and true-false objective items, written short answer, and full essay type items in varying proportions. In June 1956, the reading and the general tests were standardized tests. The reading test was the California Reading Test (Intermediate: Form AA) (2), and the general test was the Cooperative School and College Ability Test: Level 3 (SCAT 3 (3). It is a requirement of the Department of Education that every Grade IX principal submit a mark in percentage predicting the student's performance on the Departmental examinations. Because this mark is submitted in a report prepared by the principal, it is called the Principal's Rating, although in actual practice the rating is made by the subject teacher concerned.

Design of Study

A random sample of 625 Grade IX students graduating in the spring of 1956 was drawn from the record files of the Department of Education.[1] The stanine scores of each students on the six subject tests and the three scores from the SCAT 3 test, Quantitative (Q), Verbal (V), and Total (T), were punched into IBM cards along with the Principal's rating in each of the six subject areas. The Department also determines an aggregate score based on five Departmental marks excluding reading and the general test). The Department's stanine scores for this aggregate score were included in the study data as well. A stanine may be defined as a standardized score in which the distribution of scores is divided into nine parts. Stanine 1 represents the lowest four per cent; 2, the next seven per cent, 3, the next twelve per cent; 4, the next seventeen per cent; 5, the middle twenty per cent, 6, 7, 8, 9, include percentages at the higher end of the distribution corresponding to those at the lower end. They can be considered as based on a normal distribution with a stanine mean of 5.00 and a standard deviation of 2.25. The Principal's rating is given as a mark out of a possible 100. In this study, only the ten digit of this rating was used.

One other comment should be made about the data. The Principal's rating is weighed as fifty per cent in determining the final Grade IX mark in social studies A and in science. All other marks are based on test performance alone.

In the end, it was found that only 567 students had complete sets of data. These, then, constitute the sample population.

Findings

Once the data for the 567 cases had been placed on IBM cards, the means, standard deviations and intercorrelations of all variables were determined.[2] The means and standard deviations are presented for all variables in Table I.

It is noted from this table that the stanine means and standard deviations for the sample selected differ only slightly from those expected from the total population; i.e., a mean of 5.00 and a standard deviation of 2.25. Such differences as do occur can be attributed to chance factors in sampling and so it may be concluded that the sample selected is representative of the provincial 1956 grade IX population as a whole.

[1]The author wishes to acknowledge the contribution of Mr. A. B. Evenson, Associate Director of Curriculum, and Miss Angela Bundyk, Statistical Assistant, Alberta Department of Education, who not only made the data available to the author but performed the laborious task of drawing the sample.

[2]The author wishes to thank the Los Angeles Office of Educational Testing Service for the use of their IBM equipment for this part of the study.

TABLE I

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SIXTEEN VARIABLES FROM 567 ALBERTA GRADE IX STUDENTS WRITING THE 1956 GRADE IX DEPARTMENTAL EXAMINATIONS, EXPRESSED IN STANINES

Variable	Departmental Score		Principal's Rating	
	Mean	S. D.	Mean	S.D.
Reading	4.93	2.22	5.92	2.43
Literature	4.92	2.22	5.78	2.40
Social Studies A	4.99	2.24	5.72	2.39
Social Studies B	4.90	2.21	5.67	2.38
Mathematics	5.05	2.25	5.58	2.36
Science	5.03	2.24	5.86	2.24
Aggregate	4.98	2.23		
SCAT 3 Verbal	5.10	2.26		
Quantitative	5.22	2.28		
Total	5.11	2.26		

Table II presents the correlation coefficients between the various Departmental marks and the corresponding Principal's rating and the three scores of SCAT 3.

TABLE II

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN DEPARTMENTAL EXAMINATION SCORES AND PRINCIPAL'S RATING AND SCAT 3 FOR 567 ALBERTA GRADE IX STUDENTS IN 1956

Departmental Score	Principal's Rating	SCAT 3		
		V.	Q.	T.
Reading	.61	.84	.72	.84
Literature	.59	.80	.69	.80
Social Studies A	.72	.78	.73	.81
Social Studies B	.64	.76	.72	.79
Mathematics	.66	.65	.77	.76
Science	.67	.72	.71	.76
Aggregate Score	.....	.81	.78	.85

It will be noted from this table that a fairly high relationship exists between the Departmental score and the Principal's rating.

Attention is drawn to the two variables, social studies A and science, where the Principal's rating is weighed in with the Departmental score. These two variables have the highest relationship to Principal's ratings but these are not markedly higher, as might have been anticipated, than the other correlation coefficients. On the other hand, the SCAT 3 scores showed higher relationships to the Departmental scores than were obtained from the Principal's rating.

The above table immediately brings in to question the relationship of the Principal's ratings to performance on SCAT 3. These comparisons are presented in Table III.

TABLE III

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN PRINCIPAL'S RATING IN SIX SUBJECT AREAS AND PERFORMANCE ON SCAT 3 FOR 567 ALBERTA GRADE IX STUDENTS

Principal's Rating	SCAT 3		
	V.	Q.	T.
Reading	.58	.53	.60
Literature	.57	.52	.58
Social Studies A	.56	.55	.60
Social Studies B	.56	.54	.58
Mathematics	.53	.64	.61
Science	.49	.51	.53

Comparing the data in Table II with that in Table III, it becomes evident that the relationships found between the Principal's ratings and performance on SCAT 3 are much lower than those found between actual performance on the Departmentals and the same tests. Notwithstanding, there still remains a strong relationship between the Principal's ratings and the SCAT 3 scores which would suggest that the student's academic aptitude plays a large part in the Principal's rating. Conversely, it would appear that the Departmental's are very similar to tests of academic aptitude in that they seem to be measuring the same attributes but requiring a much longer testing period to do so.

The next analysis sought to determine the improvement in prediction of the Departmental scores by combining a variety of Principal's ratings and the SCAT 3 scores. Using the method proposed by Horst and Smith (6), the corrected multiple correlation

coefficients and the relative beta weights of each of the Principal's ratings and the SCAT 3 scores were determined for each Departmental mark. These data are presented in Table IV. For simplicity in tabular presentation, each predictor variable has been numbered as follows: Principal's Rating in Reading,1; Literature, 2; Social Studies A, 3; Social Studies B (Language), 4; Mathematics, 5; Science, 6; SCAT 3 Verbal score, V; and SCAT 3 Quantitative score, Q.

TABLE IV

RELATIVE WEIGHTS AND CORRECTED MULTIPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR EIGHT VARIABLES AND SEVEN CRITERION FOR 567 ALBERTA GRADE IX STUDENTS IN 1956

Criterion Variables	Predictor Variables								
Departmental Gr. IX Scores	1	2	3	4	5	6	V	Q	R_o
Reading	.07	.05	.12	.09	.....	—.03	.56	.18	.88
Literature	.06	.09	.05	.12	.03	.02	.52	.15	.84
Social Studies A	.04	.07	.25	—.02	.19	.06	.38	.15	.89
Social Studies B	.05	.06	.09	.17	.08	.....	.43	.17	.83
Mathematics	.....	.02	.10	.09	.17	.03	.10	.50	.82
Science	.....	.....	.10	.....	.20	.29	.33	.16	.87
Aggregate	.05	.03	.16	.07	.14	.06	.41	.17	.90

This table shows that by including all Principal's ratings and two SCAT scores, the correlation coefficients with the various Departmental scores are raised in every case over those found for just the Principal's rating or for any one of the SCAT 3 scores. As might be expected from Table II, the two SCAT 3 variables make the largest relative contribution in predicting the Grade IX grades. With few exceptions, the Principal's ratings in other Grade IX Departmental subject fields contribute little to prediction in each particular subject. Some variables, notably, the Principal's ratings in reading and literature, make relatively little or no contribution to the prediction of Grade IX Departmental scores. In the two subjects where the Principal's rating is used in the determination of the final mark, social studies A and science, the Principal's rating variable does contribute appreciably to the relationship. This is to be expected, but again the relative contribution is less than that contributed by the two SCAT variables. The Principal's rating in mathematics, however, does make a relatively high contribution to

the prediction of success in science. In fact, its contribution to the prediction of success in science is higher than the same variable makes to the prediction of the Departmental mark in mathematics.

The question of what would be the best variables to use operationally in the prediction of grades on the Grade IX Departmentals was next examined. A number of possibilities arose: use of the Principal's rating alone, use of the SCAT 3 Total score alone, use of the two SCAT 3 scores ($R_{c.V,Q}$), use of the two SCAT 3 scores and the Principal's rating in the Departmental field being predicted ($R_{c.x,V,Q}$), or use of the full compliment of predictor variables ($R_{c.1\text{-}6,V,Q}$). The summary of correlation coefficients found, using the various predictor variables, is presented in Table V. In every case where a multiple correlations coefficient has been calculated, this has been corrected for shrinkage.

TABLE V

COMPARISON OF CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS OF DIFFERENT COMBINATIONS OF PREDICTOR VARIABLES FOR SEVEN GRADE IX DEPARTMENTAL EXAMINATION SCORES FOR 567 ALBERTA GRADE IX STUDENTS IN 1956

Criterion Variable	Predictor Variables				
Departmental IX Score	Principal's Rating	SCAT 3 Total	$R_{c.VQ}$	$R_{c.x,V,Q}$	$R_{c.1\text{-}6,V,Q}$
Reading	.61	.84	.86	.87	.88
Literature	.59	.80	.82	.83	.84
Social Studies A	.72	.81	.83	.88	.89
Social Studies B	.64	.79	.81	.82	.83
Mathematics	.66	.76	.79	.81	.82
Science	.67	.76	.78	.83	.87
Aggregate	.....	.85	.87	.....	.90

This table shows a steady progression in the size of the correlation coefficient as the number of predictor variables in increased. While the Principal's ratings show a substantial relationship to final mark in the Grade IX Departmentals, a higher relationship can be obtained by using the SCAT 3 total score. However, if the two SCAT 3 scores are weighted (Note: the total score represents an equal weighing of the Verbal and Quantitative scores) to give the maximum correlation coefficient, the overall degree of relationship with each variable is improved only slightly. Greater improvement

is achieved by including the Principal's rating in the subject being predicted with the two SCAT 3 scores. The addition of five other predictor variables (Principal's ratings in the remaining Departmental examination subjects) adds little to improving the prediction of Grade IX Departmental scores. It is concluded from these data that a prediction equation composed of the Principal's rating in the subject concerned plus the two SCAT 3 scores yields the best prediction when economy of time in the calculation of the predicted scores is considered.

It is not the purpose of this paper to provide a prediction equation for each Departmental examination. For one thing, the reliability of the Departmental scores has never been determined and the Reading Test has since been changed from the one used in this study. However, as an example of what might be done, the regression equations for the prediction of each of the six Departmental scores using only the ten digit of the Principal's rating and the Departmental stanine norms for SCAT 3 V and Q scores, are presented in Table VI. The standard error of estimate of the predicted grade is based on an assumed Departmental score reliability of .85. It must be emphasized that the reliability coefficient for the various criterion Departmental scores are not known except for reading. This latter test has a reliability coefficient of .92 (1, p. 4).

TABLE VI

REGRESSION EQUATIONS AND STANDARD ERROR OF ESTIMATES FOR SIX GRADE IX DEPARTMENTAL EXAMINATIONS AND TOTAL SCORE BASED ON 567 GRADE IX STUDENTS IN 1956

Departmental Grade IX Examination	Principal's Rating in Subject	Verbal Score	Quantitative Score	Constant	Standard Error of Estimate
Reading	.10	.63	.23	—.07	0.6
Literature	.13	.59	.19	.17	1.2
Social Studies A	.34	.42	.22	—.24	1.1
Social Studies B	.23	.44	.23	.16	1.3
Mathematics	.25	.18	.48	.21	1.3
Science	.34	.35	.28	—.26	1.2
Aggregate	.....	.53	.41	.14	1.1

The above table may be used as follows. We are to predict a student's score in reading knowing that his Principal's rating in mathematics was 75, and that he has stanine scores on SCAT 3 of

Verbal 6 and Quantitative 7. His predicted stanine score on the Departmentals would be calculated as follows:

$$.10\ (7) + .63\ (6) + .23\ (7) - .07 = 6.0$$

We would predict, then, that this particular student would obtain a grade in the Grade IX Departmental examination in reading of stanine 6. Moreover, we could say that seven times in ten students with similar predictor scores would receive reading scores falling between 5.4 and 6.6.

These data would seem to show the following specific findings:

1. the degree of relationship between Principal's rating and score on the Grade IX Departmental examination is relatively good;

2. scores on a test of academic aptitude give higher relationship to the criterion than does the Principal's rating;

3. the highest degree of relationship to the criterion is obtained when all predictor variables are used, but the loss in predictive efficiency by using only the Principal's rating in the subject concerned and the two scores from the test of academic aptitude is so slight as to favor operational use of this quicker method of computing predicted final score.

Discussion

The relatively high relationship between Department scores and the corresponding Principal's rating is in one way surprising. Normally, one expects a teacher's subjective evaluation of the student based on his or her observation of the student in class will yield a lower relationship. Cronbach, perhaps, is closer to the answer in his observation:

> When ratings are used as criteria, there is the possibility that teachers, foremen, or other judges as influenced by partial knowledge of the prediction test scores. Teachers may be influenced in their grading by a knowledge of a pupil's I.Q. . . . These influences raise the correlation between grade and intelligence . . . (4, p. 262)

It is a common practice among Alberta Grade IX teachers to secure previous years' Grade IX Departmental examination papers, and administer these to the students early in the spring. There is a ready supply of old test forms available through the Department of Education for such purposes and by the very nature of curriculum development, there are no marked changes in test content from year to year. Were these tests used to their full extent in deriving the Principal's rating—and were the author sufficiently daring—it might be suggested that the correlation coefficients between the Principal's rating and the final Departmental scores are indicative of the interform test reliability of the Departmental subject examinations.

Similarily, the publisher's statement of the purpose of the School

and College Ability Tests would seem to be substantiated by the findings of this study:

> The School and College Ability tests aid in estimating the capacity of a student to undertake the academic work of the next higher level of schooling. They measure the two kinds of school-related abilities which are most important in the greatest number of school and college endeavors: verbal and quantitative. (3, p. 5).

Because of the comparatively high relationships found between scores on this test and those on the Departmentals, it can be concluded that the Departmentals, generally, are measuring essentially the same attributes as this test.

Conclusions

1. Possibly because of the widespread use of previous examinations to assist in the determination of student ratings, the relationship of the Principal's ratings to final marks in six Grade IX Departmental examination subjects was found to be comparatively high.

2. A high relationship was found between the final Grade IX Departmental marks and the scores on a test of academic aptitude. This relationship was of sufficient magnitude to make it appear that the scores being gained after ten and a half hours of testing were basically the same as those that were obtained in seventy minutes using a test of academic ability. There may be other reasons why tests such as the present Departmentals can be justified in the Provincial testing program. It must be shown, however, that the present tests have these desired qualities, are in fact measuring subject skills and abilities beyond academic aptitude. This study can not, nor was it intended to, answer this question. It does suggest, in the light of the present findings, that such a question is worthy of investigation.

3. It is possible to predict with a considerable degree of accuracy performance on the Grade IX Departmental examinations. While the two scores on the academic aptitude test contribute primarily to the prediction, these predictions can be improved within the limits of economy in calculation by including the Principal's rating in the subject to be predicted. Moreover, the predicted scores are of sufficient accuracy that regression equations of the type illustrated could find ready use by the Department of Education in determining whether a student who has missed any or all of the Grade IX Departmentals can be promoted to Grade X with much the same confidence as with his fellows who took the Departmental examinations.

Suggestions

The findings of this study would strongly suggest that a system of accreditation using the Principal's ratings and a test of

academic aptitude would be equally effective with the present Departmentals as a basis for promotion. However, by way of precaution, before considering a change in examination structure, it would be desirable to investigate experimentally the effect of substituting for Departmental examinations standardized subject survey tests in the several fields.

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BOOK REVIEW

MORE THAN SOCIAL STUDIES by Alice Miel and Peggy Brogan, Englewood Cliffs, N.J. Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957, pp. 452.

The sub-title "A view of social learning in the elementary school", indicates the scope of this interesting and provocative text. The authors, both professors at Teachers' College, Columbia University, make a persuasive plea for a new look at the nature and quality of the experiences which constitute the social education of children at the beginning of the second half of the 20th century. As the title suggests the authors do not limit the educational experiences of learners to the school, and not solely to the social studies. Rather do they assume that significant opportunities for social living are to be found in the home, the church and the community, as well as in the general give and take of living in the classroom and school. In this broader context the pupils find a need to use and master many more skills in human living that are needed, and therefore can be learned, in the more controlled and restricted environment of the classroom.

In Section I of the book the authors deal with the basic concepts of democracy and the respective roles of teacher and pupils in a classroom operating under democratic principles and practices. The primary values and meanings in elementary education, a major theme of the book, receives here consideration and emphasis. The section concludes with a proposal for a program of social education covering the elementary school years.

In Section II the authors focus their attention more directly on the learners and the experiences which young learners can have in the relatively controlled conditions which are to be found where pupils and teachers congregate in classes.

> The school has an opportunity to reinforce learning in many ways—giving children help in seeing relationships as they have experiences at home, in the community, and at school today, yesterday and tomorrow. Children can be helped to organize information gained from books, parents, playmates, television, the corner grocer, and dozens of other sources. The school can help children to have extra practice in needed skills, such as cooperation, listening, carrying out a responsibility and reporting to the group, using numbers intelligently, using printed information with discrimination, and many others. It can help children fill in gaps in information as need is discovered. It can give children help in generalizing upon experiences and learning to apply principles to new situations where they fit. Throughout all this, the school can help children more and more to learn how to learn by themselves so that they will want to and can continue to learn efficiently all their lives (pp. 181-182).

The quotation summarizes responsibilities and opportunities of the modern elementary school. It is true that not all schools and

not all teachers measure up equally well to the demands and opportunities of their association with children, but all do assume that helping young learners to effect a secure adjustment in their social environment in one of their main tasks.

The third and final section of the book is concerned with the translation of theory into classroom practice. Among the problems considered in curriculum building: how to select those experiences which will be most productive of useful learnings for the pupils; how to determine the point where the interests of the pupils as individuals and the interests of society must be reconciled. It is true that some of the demands made by adult society do not make much sense to young learners; on the other hand many of the adult stipulations involve learnings too significant to the future of the learners to be omitted from their learning experiences.

In this section of the book the authors review significant portions of the study of CHILDREN INTERESTS made by Jersild and Tasch (1).

In this study pupils were asked to express their opinion of various school subjects. On the results of this popularity poll Jersild and Tasch comment as follows:

> Topics under the general heading of the social studies were mentioned unfavorably more often than favorably in most of the community groups and in most age groups included in the study (1, p. 763).

This quotation would seem to suggest to the curriculum maker that social studies should be omitted from the intellectual diet of the elementary school pupil, if the expressed interest of the pupils were to be the criterion of section. However, when the tables on which the quotation is based are examined more closely, especially in the Grade IV to Grade VI range, some interesting additional facts appear. When asked to state ,"What I don't Care to Study About", the 652 pupils in Grade IV to VI of three schools registered their disapproval in the following descending order: social studies, English, arithmetic and spelling (1, pp. 146-150). When asked to respond to ,"What I'd Like to Learn More About at School", social

Area of Study	Percentage (Average of all boys and girls in the sample, Grade IV to VI)
Social studies	18.3
English	9.5
Arithmetic	5.7
Spelling	4.0

studies ranks first with 28.6%, ahead of arithmetic 27%, English 13.1% and spelling 8.5%. In reply to "The Most Interesting Thing I Have Done At School During the Past Week or So" the replies are even more surprising:

When commenting upon the preferences suggested in the study Jersild and Tasch say:

> In view of the findings regarding the personal flavor of children's wishes and interests, it is likely that their reactions to the social studies might be different if these were approached more by way of issues that touch upon children's own feelings and that have a bearing upon emotional currents in their own lives (1, p. 75).

This quotation strengthens the position of Miel and Brogan that "more of the social studies should be based on topics and problems meaningful to today's children" (p. 406). However they do add words of caution, "the possibility that a study may have appeal for children is only one factor to be taken into account" (p. 407). Other criteria of selection are considered to be, significance and need, breadth and balance, feasibility and continuity. "The teacher will want to apply all reasonable tests to make sure that the best choices have been made by him and the children" of experiences wherein the behavior and discipline consistent with democratic principles can be learned.

The authors are ardent and persuasive proponents of the proposition that more realistic learning situations can and should be presented in our classrooms. In the earnestness of their advocacy they have hindered their cause by belittling the importance of "information-centered study" and by setting up straw men to be demolished with enthusiastic vigor. Occasionally meaning is obscured by the use of professional terminology when simpler terms would have better expressed the meaning, and by such perfect examples of camouflaged meaning as the following from page 336:

> To help children change meanings that prevent the children from perceiving themselves in democratic relating in both their present and future living (p. 336).

Anything so confusingly obscure must surely be one of those examples which occasionally escape the most vigilant proof reader.

Elementary teachers will find the reading of this text to be a rewarding experience. For the secondary teacher of social studies TEACHING HIGH SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES by Maurice P. Hunt and Lawrence E. Metcalf (2) will open new vistas of the possibilities of their subject in the social education of 'teen agers'.

W. D. McDougall

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